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JOURNAL



VOLUME XXIII

December, 1951

NUMBER 3

INDIANA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
TERRE HAUTE, INDIANA

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THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

Volume XXIII

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Published October, November, December, January, March, and May by
Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

Entered as second-class matter October 5, 1951, at the post office at Terre
Haute, Indiana, under act of August 24, 1912.



The Teacher's Influence

A feature article in this issue of the Teachers College Journal describes an outstanding teacher who had the unusual experience of coming in contact, directly or indirectly, with two of Indiana's, and perhaps America's, most notorious gangsters. This teacher was one of the outstanding public school teachers in the state of Indiana. In no way can it be said that this teacher was a contributing factor to the waywardness and downfall of the two hoodlums. Perhaps, it can more accurately be concluded that her influence was so great that she was able to prevent a great many other youths from also resorting to a career of crime and lawlessness.

The influence of our school teachers—elementary, secondary, and college—is one of the most significant elements which have to do with the development of our society. The teacher builds character, molds personalities, disseminates knowledge, and develops skills. So many of our great and noble citizens have contributed their success directly to some teacher whom they had had some time previously in their formal schooling. In fact, most of us at some time or another have come into contact with a classroom

teacher who has left a lasting imprint on our being. This teacher may have effected the change, not so much by what was taught academically, but by his effervescent personality or radiating character. Or this teacher may have taught his subject in such

The Teachers College Journal seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education, and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The Journal does not engage in re-publication practice, in the belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

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a way as to cause us to realize its value, or develop such an interest in it, that we have followed that line vocationally. In other words, the teacher's influence comes through what is taught, how it is taught, and the personality and behavior of the teacher himself. So many times we hear student teachers remark that the reason they selected teaching as a career was basically the influence of some exceptional teacher whom they had had.

The unwholesome feature in our society stems from the fact that society itself has too many elements outside the schoolroom which also exert strong influence on our young people. Many of these influences tend to counteract and destroy the desirable

influences created in our schools through our teachers. These evil features may be found in many of our homes, in phases of our economic system, in many of our community agencies; in fact, in all areas of our society. The situation has reached the point where it seems that outside agencies are competing with the schools in the molding of the thinking and behavior of our younger generations. The schools are finding progress extremely difficult in their objective of developing a lasting influence of acceptable behavior. And yet, when some individual goes astray, society points its finger of blame directly at the school and its teachers—the school is solely at fault!

It cannot be denied that the influence of the teacher is great and everlasting, but this influence would be much more dominant, if all agencies would cooperate with our teachers in the things they are trying to do.

CHARLES W. HARDAWAY
Editor

The Teacher of Al Brady and John Dillinger

J. R. Shannon

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Indiana State Teachers College
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No other teacher can make such a claim: the teacher of Al Brady and John Dillinger, two of Indiana's—and America's—most notorious desperadoes of the century. What manner of woman is this?

Before answering for the teacher, something should be said about the two bad men for newspaper readers who are too drenched with more recent crime stories to remember the headline makers of the '30's. What manner of men were they?

To go into gory details of their careers in crime is beside the point. It is sufficient to say that each Hoosier became an object of a nationwide man hunt by the FBI and that each eventually died with his boots on. Wisecracks at the time included the James brothers of Missouri and Al Brady and John Dillinger of Indiana in the same paragraph.

Brady and Dillinger were desperate but disparate. Their disparate ends were much the same, but the causes which led to the ends were different.

Edward Pogue, who knew Dillinger as an adolescent, described him to the extraordinary teacher, and she described him as follows:

Dillinger lived then with a sister at Maywood and ran in the same crowd with Pogue and was well respected. He became the victim of a man who led him to break into a grocery store. The grocer was wounded, and this man bribed John to take all the blame which sent him to the penitentiary.

Alf Brady was a pupil of mine in the sixth grade in Danville during the school year 1921-1922. He was no problem in the schoolroom or in supervised play. He did average schoolwork. His home life was anything but happy. His father died when he was a small boy, and his mother remarried. This stepfather was unkind to him, often sending him to bed without supper. The mother was very little better. The stepfather committed suicide, and the mother married again through the aid of The Lonely Hearts Club; this marriage lasting four days.

After his sixth-grade year, his mother moved to North Salem, where she died. Alf committed burglary, but was acquitted when he claimed that he did it to obtain money to pay his mother's funeral expenses. While Alf was connected with the Dillinger gang, he would slip back under cover of night and place flowers on his mother's grave at North Salem.

He was small of stature, freckled-faced, and sandy-haired as a boy. He was often overbearing and resentful but often seemed to be brooding. He was teased and abused often by the boys of Danville.

These two boys, in my opinion, were victims of unfortunate circumstances.

Leorah G. Walls was not really the teacher of both of the Hoosier desperadoes. Her fellow teachers kidded her to that effect, since she taught at Mooresville immediately before going to Danville. "I did not

have John Dillinger in my classes, for I left Mooresville the year he arrived there," she wrote. "However, I have a neighbor, Edward Pogue, who knew him as an upper teen-age boy." But although she taught only one of the two bandits and is "contaminated" by the other only through typically American "guilt by association," other upright Hoosier teachers, perhaps equally virtuous, taught Dillinger, and are equally free from condemnation for his later wrong doings.

Then what manner of woman is this?

Miss Walls was born and reared in Stilesville, Hendricks County, in which county she still lives. She went through elementary and high school in Stilesville. Her teaching experience is best described in her own words:

The first money (fifty cents) that I ever earned (and I believe I did) was for substituting in the primary room of the Stilesville school. I, then a seventh grader, received an inspiration to become a teacher.

My first school was taught on a six-month's license with no training. They would grant no other license to a beginner. This school was a one-room school. The other positions came in the following order: Stilesville, primary, two years; Cartersburg, primary, two years; Clayton, second-primary, five years; Mooresville, sixth grade, ten years; and Danville, English in grades six, seven, eight, and nine, twenty-one years.

Leorah holds an A.B. degree and has done a little graduate work. At one time she was a student at Indiana State, and it was there that the writer first met her. She came under the supervision of the writer for three years, and she honors him by writing, "I have always remembered you as a superintendent who appreciated my work and understood me."

And how! In addition to being superintendent of schools from 1925 to 1926 in Danville—an independent school corporation in those days—the writer was supervisor of student

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The Quality of Distinction

Charles Roll

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The following article is the text of the Honor Day address delivered May 23, 1951 by Professor Roll at the annual Honor Day Convocation at Indiana State Teachers College.

—EDITOR'S NOTE

If what I shall have to say has no other merit it will at least possess that of brevity. In view of the fact that these exercises are usually quite prolonged, this will doubtless be appreciated. My part will take less than ten minutes.

The title I have chosen, "The Quality of Distinction," is not original with me. It was the subject of a very significant presidential address before the American Historical Association in 1941, by the distinguished historian, the late Max Farrand, then Director of Research in the Huntington Library in San Marino, California. The gist of this address was that our "salvation lies not in the mediocrity but in the maintenance and improvement of quality."

It seems to me that in a democracy such as ours, coupled with our belief in equality, there is a tendency to level downward instead of a constant endeavor to level upward. We have to be everlastingly on our guard against this trend. Visitors to our shores and writers since de Tocqueville have called our attention to this matter.

Mr. H. A. Overstreet in his book, *The Mature Mind*, published some three years ago, has pointed out that the chief organs of public opinion in



the country, the press, the movies, the radio, with a few notable exceptions, deliberately try to keep people immature, to keep them from growing up intellectually. David Graham Hutton in his *Midwest at Noon*, makes a similar observation. Both writers attribute this to our extreme commercialization and to mass advertising which seems to place a very low estimate on the general level of culture and the intellect.

Another enemy of distinction is our proneness to exalt quantity rather than quality. We worship bigness and tend to confuse it with greatness. It is always a good thing to see ourselves as others see us. One of Santayana's severest indictments of us is this emphasis upon quantity. Americans are more interested, he declares, in measuring Niagara Falls and determining how much electric power it will generate than in its beauty. Colleges, he asserts, are more concerned about total enrollment figures than in the quality of the students. America certainly never has had a more friendly critic than James Bryce. He says precisely the same thing in his *American Commonwealth*. We desire the tallest buildings, the highest waterfalls, the loftiest mountains, the largest libraries, periodicals with the greatest number of subscriptions; we are certainly greatly impressed by statistics. We think that a country, to be great, must be big. Do not be deceived.

No one glories in the majestic scenery of our great West more than I—"our purple mountain majesties—above the fruited plain." But our greatest literature and other forms of art, our greatest thoughts have been

inspired by more quiet, peaceful scenery, drawn on a smaller scale, by the Lake Country in England, by the serenity of a Concord Village, by a Walden Pond, by a little Sea of Galilee.

Some of the best colleges in America with the highest standards are institutions where the number of students is strictly limited and highly selective. Some of our larger schools realizing the advantages of the smaller institutions have adopted the Oxford and Cambridge plan of the quad system, composed of small college or house units within the larger. I can think of certain periodicals whose circulation never numbered more than a few thousand but whose influence was vastly greater than some that have boasted of millions of readers.

There are other enemies of distinction. There is the person who conceives of education solely from a utilitarian point of view, in terms of making a living, forgetful of the fact that it is vastly more important to make life worth living. For what does it profit one to gain the whole world and lose his own soul? What does an education amount to if it does not give us higher standards of value, a more discriminating taste for the worthwhile things, the timeless things, of life?

Then there is the student looking for the easy way—the one when the going gets a little tough drops the course, rather than regarding it as a challenge, forgetful of the fact that what comes easy is not worth getting in the first place. Distinction is won by hard, sustained work. Many are unwilling to pay the price. We grow by overcoming difficulties, by not giving up. There is no such thing as a short-cut to an education. It is but a snare and a delusion.

Still another enemy of distinction is the lack of enthusiasm—of eagerness for knowledge—disinterested knowledge for its own sake without which real learning will shrivel up and die. Professor Frederick Jackson Turner used to quote to his classes

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Basic Communications: A Second Report

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In the May-June, 1950, issue of the *Teachers College Journal* appeared the first full report on the Basic Communications course offered at Indiana State Teachers College. This presented a complete survey of the inauguration of the course at the college and of the functioning of the Committee that prepared and developed the materials and work of the course. It discussed the following topics: Selection of Students, Instructional Materials, How the Class Functioned, Content of the Communications Course, Evaluation, Products, Plans for Next Year, Recommendations and Suggestions, and Acknowledgement. Thus for a full comment on these matters the reader is referred to that earlier issue of the *Journal*. This report will not duplicate the former.

During the academic year of 1950-51 the Committee on Basic Communications¹ continued its weekly two-hour sessions with the chief aim of modifying and improving the course syllabus which had been used in 1949-50. The changes made were not drastic, but they were widespread. An effort was made to give each Quarter a general overall emphasis. Thus in the Fall Quarter, the grammar and mechanics of socially-acceptable speech and writing were given particular attention; in the Winter Quarter, vocabulary-building

¹Laban Smith and Joseph Schick of the English Department; James Boyle of the Speech Department.

served as a focus of achievement; in the Spring Quarter, the comprehension of reading and intelligent listening were emphasized. A large amount of the time formerly devoted to the oral interpretation of literature was during this year turned to further stress on writing and the study and analysis of prose and poetry selections. We were also able to give more time to the development of the student's vocabularies and to their powers of reasoning. This should serve them in good stead. At the time of this writing, early in the Spring Quarter, 1951, the preliminary announcements have appeared in the press about the special tests to be administered by the government to college students, tests which will determine to a large extent whether a student will be permitted to continue his college education or be immediately subject to the draft. At this time it is apparent that important sections of this examination will be devoted to the student's understanding and interpretation of prose passages, and to the extent of his vocabulary. Considerable attention is given these matters in the Communication Course.

As some changes were made in the day-to-day work, changes were also made in the texts. Instead of being limited to the use of one dictionary, the instructor had a choice of using either the *American College Dictionary* or *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*. Study guides were used with both dictionaries. The classes

were about evenly divided in the choice of dictionary. Two books used last year were discontinued; these were *Oral Reading* by Crocker and Eich, and *The Meaning in Reading* by Wise et al. In their place, *The College Anthology*, edited by Blair and Gerber, was used. This is really a two-volume work bound as one; the first section is devoted to factual prose, and the second section to literature—selections of prose and poetry. Extensive assignments were made in it, with appropriate class discussion and analysis of the reading. The Monroe text on the *Principles and Types of Speech* and the Summey and Abbott text, *A Manual for College English* continued to be used during this year. Next year, 1951-52, we propose to use the shorter edition of the Monroe speech text; and the present English composition text will be supplanted by Taft, McDermott, and Jensen's *The Technique of Composition*.

The Committee has prepared a day-to-day syllabus of class work and assignments for students during the 1951-52 sessions; and in addition a special syllabus for instructors has been prepared. The instructor's syllabus contains teaching suggestions which the Committee feels may prove helpful. These syllabi will be prepared in mimeographed form and will be placed on sale at the College Bookstore.

The Committee continued its consultations with non-Committee members in the Speech and English Departments. One general open-meeting was held with all those instructors who, though not members of the Committee, were teaching a class in Basic Communications. All of the instructors contributed valuable suggestions and criticisms to the Committee as the year progressed. During 1950-51 eight classes were in session, four under instructors in the English Department, and four under instructors in the Speech Department.

At the beginning of the Fall Quarter, 1950, there were 185 students enrolled in the eight Basic

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Teaching Citizenship Through United States History

Howard B. Wilder

Houghton-Mifflin Company
Boston, Massachusetts

The accompanying article is the text of an address delivered by Mr. Wilder at the 1951 annual summer book exhibit at Indiana State Teachers College.—EDITOR'S NOTE

Recently I participated in a conference which had for its purpose the listing and annotation of the best existing pamphlet material on international relations and international cooperation. As the group toiled through pages and pages of listed titles, one of the consultants suddenly looked up and observed, "I think that schools and teachers would be better off if a moratorium were declared on new publications in this field." His remark, of course, was facetious, but it did contain an element of sound common sense. I am sure that all of us have experienced at one time or another a feeling of futility as we have tried to keep abreast of all the books and articles which are pertinent to our field, and have perhaps entertained a fleeting wish that there might be a cessation of new materials so that we could assimilate that which already exists, organize our thoughts, and put them into practice. My purpose is not to add to the existing welter of material on citizenship training. I have no new formula, no neat solution for improving it. Rather, I have tried to think through the situation in terms of the means and materials which we already have at hand in our schools and classrooms.

Certainly in recent years the field of citizenship training has had its

full share of attention, ranging all the way from thoughtful discussions of content and method, to sharp criticisms of existing programs and fervent exhortations to develop more effective ones. Constructive studies have been launched, such as the Citizenship Education Project at Columbia University and the Civic Education Project of the Educational Research Corporation of Cambridge, Massachusetts. The former has undertaken the organization and preparation of materials helpful to teachers in setting up a dynamic citizenship program. Its initial attacks upon the problem have been centered on the 11th and 12th grade American History and Problems of Democracy courses. The Cambridge group has prepared a series of pamphlets for pupil use, dealing with important and controversial topics, an understanding of which is considered vital to prospective citizens. Moreover, in Massachusetts there is at present before the legislature a bill which proposes the appointment of a Civic Education Director. These examples of interest in improving citizenship could be multiplied many times.

Why is there such widespread interest in citizenship training? The reasons are not difficult to find. For one thing, we Americans feel a new and compelling necessity to develop effective citizenship programs. The events of the past twenty-five years have jolted us out of any complacency we might have had. Totalitarian ideologies, first Fascism and Nazism,

and now Communism, have challenged our democratic way of life. Our defenses against the latter have shown disturbing weaknesses. Furthermore, the new world position of the United States has thrust added responsibilities upon us and requires of us wise decisions. In one sense, it makes little difference whether we follow the thinking of Hoover, Dulles, Taft, or Truman, since in expressing opinions or proposing policies all these leaders must deal with America in a world setting. As Dr. Howard Wilson pointed out in the March, 1951, issue of *Social Education*, the current debate "is not merely a re-opening of the old argument over isolationism versus internationalism. We have entered a new phase of the argument, and are now really discussing the nature of the internationalism which is most conducive to our welfare and security. There are echoes of isolationist hopes in the argument, but they are of diminishing importance. The discussion presupposes commitments we have made in the past and considers new factors, both expected and unexpected, in the world situation as it now is."¹ In another sense, however, it may make all the difference in the world—the difference between security and catastrophe—which formula of foreign policy we accept and follow. Finally, within the country itself people are troubled and confused by disillusioning evidences of crime and corruption, pressures by selfish interests, and apathy and indecision on the part of many citizens. There is, therefore, a growing conviction that if we are to have the chance to live in the kind of world we want, and in the kind of United States we want, we must have a citizenry that is well informed, vigorously active, and firmly dedicated to its responsibilities.

In the second place, while citizenship training is rightfully a major responsibility of the schools, it is well to remember that it is not confined

¹Wilson, H. E., "An Open Letter on the Great Debate," *Social Education*, March 1951, p. 105.

to the schools alone. Other agencies in the environment surrounding our youth participate in it. Citizenship training is not an academic area of interest to the scholar and the pedagogue alone; it is the concern of parents, communities, and the general public as well as the schools. It involves the very life of the nation. For a good many years the public schools, and particularly social studies departments, have made direct and sincere efforts to contribute to the development of better citizenship. Much has been achieved; yet I think that we would be the first to admit that, in view of the present state of affairs, much remains to be accomplished. No wonder, then, that citizenship training is a matter of public interest, and that that interest is mirrored in popular magazines, in newspaper editorials, in public discussions, and alas, occasionally in attacks upon the schools by those who have some axe to grind.

In view of the current widespread importance attached to citizenship training, it may appear questionable to limit this discussion to teaching citizenship through United States history. In doing so I am not proposing that we narrow such training to this subject area alone. Like many concepts in the field of education, citizenship training is a broad one. A great variety of instructional materials and school activities have a bearing on the development of good citizens. We speak, for example of good citizens in a political sense—those who perform their civic duties with understanding and integrity. We speak of good citizens in an economic sense—those who produce for the benefit of society, and who buy and consume and save intelligently. We speak of good citizens in a vocational sense—those who select a vocation suitable to their interests and abilities. We speak of good citizens in a social sense—those who learn to adjust themselves to the complexities of modern society in a manner that is satisfying to the social groups with which they come in contact and to themselves as individuals.

We refer to good citizens in different areas—in the home, in the school, in the local community, in the state and nation. And more recently we have been talking a good deal about training for world citizenship.

Obviously, if we are to consider citizenship training in such broad terms, no single subject or course can adequately prepare for it. It deserves special areas in the curriculum—in core social studies subjects; in community civics; in 12th grade course in government, economics, sociology, and problems of democracy; in consumer education, social living, health, and life adjustment programs. It should be an objective of assembly programs and school activities, and an important factor in the operation and functioning of the school's administration and government. It has connotations for all members of the faculty, regardless of their particular subject field. In this connection we may well note a statement from the recent report of the Educational Policies Commission on *Moral and Spiritual Values in Public Schools*. In speaking of effective teaching of such values, the Report states,—"Every teacher, every day, in every class is dealing with values. The standards he sets, the actions he approves, the way he handles his subject, his personal relations with his students, his stimulation of consistent thought and right action—all have their influence."² Such a sweeping statement is equally applicable to the inculcation of good citizenship traits.

On the other hand, even admitting the wide application of citizenship training, to neglect the opportunities offered for it through United States history would be a mistake. I make this point with full realization that many teachers are finding it increasingly difficult to accomplish all that is deemed necessary in such courses within a given time limit; and that some others may feel that citizenship training should not be a major objec-

²Educational Policies Commission, *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, p. 65.

tive in this subject matter area. Here are two or three reasons for advocating attention to citizenship in United States history courses.

First, it is hardly necessary to draw attention to the variety of curriculum patterns in operation throughout the country. Subject offerings differ from community to community, and even when the same course is offered, it does not always reach the same proportion of the student body. Thus Civics may be offered in one school and not in another; Problems of American Democracy may be required of all students in one school and be elective in another. But generally speaking, attention is paid to some American history units in the lower grades, while United States history is a requirement for most students at two upper levels—the 7th or 8th grade, and the 11th or 12th grade. Here, then, through United States history courses, is an opportunity to teach citizenship to a very large proportion of students. The fact that such courses are so widely required indicates an expectation that they will contribute to better citizenship. Although admittedly this program can be most effective if pupils remain in school and complete their secondary education, attention to citizenship training in United States history courses even at the 7th and 8th grade level can be of value to early drop-outs.

If the required nature of American history courses offers a unique opportunity for citizenship training, it may also be said in passing, that attention to the citizenship theme will pay dividends so far as the history course itself is concerned. Most teachers are sensitive to the fact that required courses tend to lose something in terms of genuine motivation. This can be especially true if students see no clear relation between a body of facts dealing with the past and living their own lives. Intelligent application of the citizenship theme to require United States history courses offers a means of added motivation. Students who find that the subject matter of United States history has direct

bearing upon their present-day living through emphasis on citizenship will take greater interest in the course.

Again, it is axiomatic that repetition aids effective learning. Citizenship training is too important and complex to be left to any single curriculum experience, no matter how carefully planned or effectively carried out that experience may be. To be sure, precautions need to be taken to vary the approaches and types of learning experiences—oftentimes mere repetition of the same materials in the same way in different courses dulls student interest and defeats the purpose. Who has not heard some student exclaim—"we studied this last year in such and such a course; why do we have to go over it again this year?" However, with careful planning and skillful teaching, this pitfall can be avoided. Certainly we want to develop a program of citizenship training that is so vital and well integrated that it transcends particular subject area limits. In this connection I am reminded of a story told a good many years ago by Sir John Adams when he was visiting professor at the Harvard School of Education. He spoke of a government inspector who was visiting an English school and interrupted a class in geography to ask a question about Jerusalem. A puzzled silence enveloped the class. Finally a small boy raised his hand and offered this comment, "Please, Sir, I don't know about Jerusalem in geography, but I do in Bible." We want our pupils to discover and recognize citizenship implications in various parts of their school experience. Teaching them through U. S. history helps to serve this purpose.

Finally, I would urge the teaching of citizenship through United States history because it is the raw material, the warp and woof out of which the very fabric of citizenship is developed. In a recent article, Stanley Dimond pleads for a restoration of vitality to certain cliches in citizenship.³ These, he points out, contain

³Dimond, S. E., "These Citizenship Cliches," *N. E. A. Journal*, January 1951, p. 10.

ernels of great truth which have been dulled by frequent repetition. Dr. Dimond's primary concern is with certain cliches in the teaching of citizenship, but his train of thought applies with equal weight to the materials of citizenship! We, as well as our young people, are bombarded on all sides with constant references to *democracy*, the *democratic process*, *civic responsibility*, the *American way of life*, and *our great American heritage*, yet we sometimes wonder how much such phrases really mean to us. What better way to restore significance to these vital concepts than to examine the background out of which such concepts and values have developed? Take, for example, the term *democratic process*, an understanding of which is essential to good citizenship in this country. We can define it, we can explain it in its present context, but the phrase takes on richer meaning in terms of a little group of Pilgrims gathered in the MAYFLOWER cabin, binding themselves to obey such laws as should be deemed necessary to the good of the settlement they were about to establish; in the defense by John Adams and Josiah Quincy, Jr., of the unpopular British soldiers involved in the Boston Massacre; in the spirit of compromise by which the basic principles of the Constitution were hammered out; in the orderly change of government through new legislation and constitutional amendment rather than resort to violence; in the quiet acceptance throughout the country of the disputed election of 1876; and in the recent Great Debate when sharp and portentous differences of viewpoint in foreign policy have been laid bare for public examination and reaction.

If one desired further support for the thesis of teaching citizenship through United States history, as well as proof that this is not a new departure, it can be found in some of the reports which have been milestones in the development of social studies since the turn of the century. In his comprehensive review of "History in General Education" at the re-

cent meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Dr. Erling Hunt pointed out that the Report of the Committee of Seven in 1890, while it might be considered subject-centered in nature, "did not entirely ignore the needs of society or of the teaching and learning process.... The Committee maintained that the study of history should enable pupils to know their surroundings, have a sympathetic knowledge of their political and social environment, some appreciation of the nature of the state and society, and some sense of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship."⁴ Subsequent reports have treated the same idea with greater emphasis. More recently, the so-called Wesley Report on *American History in Schools and Colleges* emphasizes the relationship between history and citizenship in such statements as these: "History can help to make loyal citizens because history has helped to make the nation.... Common experience and common aspirations make a nation, and they can be most easily found and most fully understood through a study of its history.... The value of American history in preparing future voters for intelligent participation in politics is so obvious that the point hardly needs elaboration. No voter can make an intelligent decision about.... problems unless he knows what our policies have been and what results they have produced."⁵

So far I have pointed out that though the widespread importance of citizenship training demands a broad educational program, teaching citizenship through United States history is an important segment of that program. If we accept this premise, we should next ask ourselves what values or outcomes can be realized from such a program. Before suggesting specific types of outcomes, it

⁴Hunt, E. M., "History in General Education," *Social Education*, February 1951, p. 64.

⁵Wesley, E. B., *American History in Schools and Colleges*, MacMillan, New York, pp. 17, 18.

is in order perhaps to make some general observations. First, most of the values will have a familiar ring, though they may not have been thought of in this particular setting. Second, for purposes of brevity, these outcomes are grouped together without reference to the particular grade level to which they apply. Obviously some of the outcomes should not be attempted with any but senior high school pupils—others are applicable in the case of less mature students though in a more elementary form. Third, it may at first sight appear that there is an undue emphasis on outcomes of knowledge and understanding. Psychology has pointed out the need of learning by doing. We know that a mere accumulation of civic information will not magically transform people into good citizens, that there must be sound attitudes and proper emotional responses, and that boys and girls need a chance to practice democracy if they are to learn it effectively. Yet there does have to be understanding as well as emotion, a background of information as well as the opportunity for practice. General Omar Bradley wrote in an article in *Collier's*, February 26, 1949, as follows: "Throughout Europe, wherever our armies were stationed, the people were bewildered by Americans who appeared indifferent to the political and philosophical origins and nature of the most powerful and progressive nation in the world. When driven into a corner intellectually, our soldiers were forced to fall back on our wage scales, our automobiles, our refrigerators—and eventually and triumphantly to the American bathroom—for their defense. Here is an indictment, not only of American education—but of the irresponsible indifference of citizens who have permitted this vacuum to remain."⁶

One type of outcome that United States history offers is a knowledge of the basic principles upon which

⁶Bradley, O. N., "What You Owe Your Country," *Collier's*, February 26, 1949, p. 58.

our democracy is founded as well as knowledge of how such principles were evolved. These principles are, of course, familiar to everyone. They include:

1. Important political concepts in a democracy—such as, government rests on individual citizens who are the source of all power; ours is a government of laws, carried out through the orderly process of legislation by duly elected representatives rather than a government dependent on the whims of men; decisions are made by the majority and must be accepted, but individuals and minority groups are free to express opinions, and to try to bring about change through legal means; centralized control together with the benefits of local authority are achieved under a federal system; and checks and balances, though not always efficient, prevent undue dominance and tyranny.

2. Individual rights and liberties under the American form of government. Individuals have the right to influence government through the franchise, office-holding, and political parties. They possess civil and personal rights—life, liberty and property; freedom of speech, press and religion; guarantee of fair trial and protection against unfair punishment or unfair laws; etc.

3. Certain basic economic and social principles—including the right to own property; to run a business and profit by it; the right to labor anywhere and at anything and in association with other workers; the concept that individuals differ but that discriminations based on race, color, religion, have no place in the American system; that varied races and cultures have contributed to the nation's greatness; that social betterment as well as individual well-being is an obligation upon all citizens.

In addition to knowledge of these basic democratic principles, United States history offers background information on important current issues. The kind of help toward producing better citizenship contributed in this way is obvious. We can tell students

over and over again how important it is to vote, we can give them practice in voting in class or school affairs, but if, as adult citizens, they are to participate intelligently in elections, they must be informed about the issues that are involved. To be sure, issues change from time to time, but there are broad areas of public policy that are continuously before us, even though the particular emphasis of the moment may be different than in the past. To infer that providing a background for current issues is possible in the study of United States history alone would be wrong, but the opportunities for developing such background material in an American history course, where it is an integral part of the story, are certainly most promising. Take, for example, the issue of foreign policy—what part America should play in the world of today. Certainly boys and girls will be better prepared to play their part as citizens in the future if they understand the early Republic's efforts to stay clear of foreign entanglements; the causes for, and development of the Monroe Doctrine; the influence upon foreign policy of an expanding national economy in a world where space and time are no longer formidable barriers; the development of American policy in the Far East and toward Latin America; the interest of the United States in world peace movements; the reasons for, and consequences of, the reluctance of the United States to commit itself to the League of Nations; the breakdown of disarmament programs after World War I; and the changes of policy and new commitments involved in such post-war developments as the Truman Doctrine, the Marshall Plan, the Atlantic Pact, and Korean intervention. Such understandings, which are possible in the study of the United States history, will serve to clarify many aspects of current foreign problems. The same could be said of background material for the problems of efficient government, better labor-management relations, law enforcement, etc.

A third set of possible outcomes of the study of United States history is the development of attitudes and appreciations important to good citizenship. These are less tangible and more difficult to achieve, but are most important.

For one thing, I would like to see all our boys and girls develop a sound appreciation of what America is and has achieved. We cannot stem opposing ideologies by merely dwelling on their weaknesses; Americans need a positive assurance that their system and way of life has higher values and greater potentialities. This is not easy for the youngster of school age to obtain. I often wonder what kind of an impression a visitor from Mars would receive if he suddenly descended to the earth and made a brief but intensive study of current newspapers, books and magazines; radio, television and movie programs; congressional committee reports and politicians' speeches. On all sides the average school student is subjected to a steady barrage of what is wrong with America, its weaknesses and the dangers which beset it—in a good many homes this is steady diet at the dinner-table. Now I am not for a moment proposing an escape from reality or the indoctrination of a blind faith that refuses to admit any unpleasant or alarming features in the current scene. But we are not going to raise up sound citizens in an atmosphere that consists largely of insecurity, criticisms, and fear. United States history provides an opportunity for building a sounder perspective. The student learns that Americans have had problems before—the perilous crossing of unknown seas, the hazards of conquering a virgin continent, the loneliness of the frontier cabin, bitter conflicts which resulted in wars for independence and the preservation of the Union. He learns that periods of insecurity sometimes breed periods of progress—that the defeats and dissensions of the War of 1812 were followed by a new surge of national vigor and unity. He learns that mistakes and poor judgments have been made before, that wicked-

ness and greed and corruption are not attributes of the present age alone. He learns that despite this, a nation has developed which is unparalleled in human opportunity and in productivity, the strongest bulwark of Western tradition and civilization. And he understands that this has been achieved by famous leaders and nameless citizens alike, because the basic ideals and ideas to which they were committed and the form of government under which they lived made possible the surmounting of these problems. In other words, he sees America in a clearer light—not perfect, but great because of spiritual values and human endeavor.

Another desirable appreciation or attitude has to do with the individual's part in a democratic society. Much has been made of the need to impress upon young people their duties as citizens. Certainly there is need to balance a knowledge of civic rights with knowledge of civic duties—the responsibility to vote, to hold office when public interest dictates it, to obey the law, to participate in the formation of an enlightened public opinion. And assuredly a knowledge of civic duties needs to be implemented by opportunities to perform those duties on a youth level in the school and community. But there is need to undergird this information and training with a sound sense of values for the individual. There is an all too prevalent notion that democracy permits an individual to live largely for the gratification of his personal ambitions and desires. We are in danger, warned one commencement speaker recently, of "raising our own [barbarian] . . . the mass man, the self-satisfied man [who] accepts as part of the order of nature all the wonderful achievements of his own civilization . . . takes them as given, feels no personal responsibility for the society which has made them possible. He expects to use and exploit them. He prides himself on being the average man."⁷

But if the purpose of life is purely

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⁷Time Magazine, June 18, 1951, p. 46.

selfish, if there is no contribution to the common weal, two things can happen—the very system which safeguards the individual can be endangered or collapse, and the citizen himself loses one of the true satisfactions of life. The study of United States history points up the importance of sound values for the individual. Suppose, for example, that Haym Salomon, or Abraham Lincoln, or Clara Barton, or Jane Adams, had followed self-centered existences. Then valuable financial support for the Revolutionary cause would have been lost, the story of the American Union might have been altered, the American Red Cross might not have been founded, the movement for social betterment might have lacked important incentives. What is more, four people would have failed to achieve lasting satisfaction. "None of us liveth to himself"; it is only by becoming allied with causes greater than himself, by becoming part of the stream of history, so to speak, that life becomes meaningful and satisfying to the individual. Here then is an important by-product of United States history in terms not only of citizenship training, but of character education.

Appreciation of America's worth and the individual citizen's responsibilities lend themselves to development both on an elementary and secondary level, though the means and methods will be different. A more mature appreciation which may be an outcome on the high school level, is a feeling for the gradualness and evolutionary character of our democratic tradition. Lack of this feeling produces attitudes not helpful in our country today. On the one hand there are those who would turn the clock back or who would defend the *Status quo* on the grounds that our security permits no break with the past. On the other hand, there are those who, concerned with shortcomings in our present system or the dangers which threaten it, would make a sharp break with the past. Neither viewpoint squares with the best interest of America. Changing conditions re-

quire new viewpoints but drastic change brings with it the penalty of the historical law of action and reaction. Rather the solution lies in a constant re-examination of conditions and policies in the light of present-day needs and in the light of history's lessons.

Such an appreciation of the desirability of evolutionary change may well be said to be beyond the grasp of even high school students. Perhaps so, in its entirety, yet one can find the raw material for such an appreciation in the study of American history. Out of these raw materials some beginnings can be made. We have already noted the evolving character of American foreign policy. Illustrations can likewise be found in political, economic, and social aspects of our history. Politically our founding fathers were primarily concerned with the establishment of a Republic; some of them had doubts concerning the workability of the rule of the common man. Through the Jeffersonian revolution of 1800, the levelling influences of the frontier, the spread of democratic practices in the Jacksonian era, the pressure of reform movements, legislative action and the development of the unwritten constitution, we have gradually evolved a system more directly responsible to the people. In the economic field one can point out numerous steps in the shift from a *laissez faire* policy to one in which the free enterprise system is hedged about by government regulation to benefit agriculture, restrain monopoly, and to govern relations of labor and management, in the interest of the public welfare. Socially we can trace the shift from a sparsely settled agricultural nation to an urban industrialized culture, the growth of new ideas of social responsibility, and the policies undertaken to overcome certain social evils. In all such illustrations, it is possible to point out that progress is not always steady, that corrections often create new problems, and that achievement of our democratic goals is a never-ending process.

No doubt other important appreci-

ations could be mentioned. The point should also be made that, although such appreciations have an intellectual basis, they have emotional accompaniments, which may help to influence attitudes and conduct.

There are at least two other types of citizenship outcomes which may be derived from the study of United States history. One is the development of clear thinking. The need for clear thinking in a democratic society is obvious. The citizen in a totalitarian state needs only to absorb the party line and pursue it unquestioningly in order to meet his citizenship requirements. The citizen in a democracy faces a much more demanding task. He must continually struggle to avoid the dangers of bloc thinking, to distinguish truth from propaganda, and to reach independent conclusions. He needs to see a given problem clearly, to weigh pertinent information in the light of democratic values, to reach a tenable solution or opinion, and to act on it. Here is an outcome which can be developed to some degree in the upper grades and more fully at the senior high school level. It can be inculcated only through constant practice. United States history is replete with situations, many of them closely related to present-day problems, which can be exploited for the development of this trait.

The last type of outcome—stimulation for reading—is important even though, in these days of television, reading has not gained popularity in the eyes of young people. Citizens in a democracy need to form the habit of reading. The new media of communication are valuable instructional aids—they provide vivid and dramatic means for driving home ideas. But they have limitations. Radio and television impressions are fleeting—they provide little opportunity for weighing evidence and forming considered judgments. In the hands of an unscrupulous leader, such as Hitler, they may become dangerous weapons. Or to take a less extreme illustration, and one closer to home, nobody would deny the value of televising

MacArthur's recent historic appearance before the Senate Committee. Here was a truly stirring scene, with definite citizenship values—the emphasis on a life of public service, of belief in American traditions, of personal dignity and courageous forthrightness. But to hold that we should judge the merits of administration foreign policy without the additional benefit of the printed testimony from these hearings, is questionable. "Reading," argued C. L. Cushman, Associate Superintendent of the Philadelphia Board of Education, in a recent article, "provides a means of power for achieving freedom of thought that is as superior to other media of communication as the aeroplane is superior to the automobile as a means of achieving freedom of physical movement."⁸

The study of United States history may involve the use of a great volume and variety of reading materials—selected sources, general references, supplementary texts, special accounts, historical fiction, magazines and newspapers. Here is an opportunity to encourage the reading of materials concerned with our great past and with current issues, appealing to different interests and suited to varying levels of reading ability.

How then can these various citizenship values—information and knowledge, understandings and appreciations, clear thinking and reading habits—be achieved through the study of United States history? It should be borne in mind that we are contemplating, not a course in citizenship, but teaching citizenship through a subject area unusually well-suited to that purpose. We do not therefore face the task of complete reorganization of United States history courses in terms of this purpose, but rather the continuing use of all available materials for implementing this important objective. The citizenship theme should be a recognized objective of the course of study and should

⁸Cushman, C. L., "Why Teach Them to Read?" *Education*, May 1951, p. 546.

be an important factor in determining the materials and practices of the course. Such an approach may be termed *incidental*, but need not be hit-or-miss or *accidental*. It will be greatly helped by planned programs of citizenship training, but its potentialities extend beyond any set program. It depends in the last analysis for its success upon the ability to plan, the teaching skill, and the dedication of the individual teacher.

One method is to take time out to include and emphasize extra materials not always considered a part of a traditional course set-up, provided the citizenship theme warrants it. A very obvious opportunity occurs when the formation of the Constitution is studied. To some extent in the 7th and 8th grades, and to an even greater extent in senior high school, there should be consideration of basic constitutional principles, the structure and operation of our federal government, and the development of our political system. The adoption of the Bill of Rights opens the way not only to a full consideration of political and civil liberties, but to the duties and responsibilities of citizens. The formation of the United Nations opens the way to a fuller consideration of world organization and world cooperation. Such special treatment of topics will not only bring out citizenship values, but make other references to these topics throughout the course more meaningful.

Second, and closely allied to the above, we can take certain basic documents in America's history out of moth balls and treat them intelligently. A few of us can remember the day when the only contact school children had with the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution was rote memorization. Fortunately, this approach is no longer used, but no satisfactory substitute is commonly followed. It is hardly reasonable to expect young people to revere that about which they know little except that the Declaration says that "all men are created equal," that the Constitution establishes our form of government, and that the Gettysburg

Address defines democracy. The popularity of the Freedom Train indicated that people can become interested in their heritage. What is needed is an interesting and meaningful approach: details of human interest, intelligible paraphrases of difficult language, and discussion of ideas. Fortunately, visual and textual materials of this character are becoming more available.

Third, throughout the sweep of American history are incidents and developments with citizenship implications. One of the most profitable means of teaching citizenship through United States history is to see that the proper emphasis and interpretation is given to those events. There is nothing novel in this suggestion—all teachers have done it more or less—except that the idea becomes a planned feature in the presentation of subject matter. This is one of the recommended approaches of the Columbia University Citizenship Education Project. A few examples will suffice to illustrate this method. Consideration of the colonial charters with their guarantee of the rights of Englishmen offers the chance to study our English heritage of civil liberty. The meeting of the Virginia House of Burgesses introduces the topic of representative government. The settlement of Rhode Island and the Maryland Toleration Act illustrate the beginnings of our basic principles of religious freedom. The Zenger Case dramatizes the right of freedom of the press. Relations of colonial legislatures with royal governors bring up the right of the people through their representatives to control expenditures as well as being an early illustration of the checks and balance principle. The founding of colonial colleges and the Massachusetts School Law indicate the value placed on education by our forebears, while the work of Horace Mann leads to a discussion of the importance of free public education in a democracy. The formation of committees of correspondence illustrates the right and obligation of

citizens to work together for defense of their rights, while the Northwest Ordinance points to the application of fundamental rights to new citizens. Coming to the late period, one can use the Interstate Commerce Act or the Sherman Antitrust Act or the conservation movement to illustrate the principle of government regulation in the public interest. The formation of various labor organizations and the story of important strikes introduce the problem of the rights of free labor in a democracy. The stories of the Populist and Progressive Parties can be cited to show the ability of political parties to force reforms demanded by the public, and so on. This type of emphasis not only adds meaning to historical events themselves in the development of the American way of life, but may furnish the teacher with a springboard from which to explore and emphasize important civic concepts and principles.

A corollary to this technique is the development of certain general themes throughout American history. The development of such themes may take the form of continuing activities throughout the year, or of summarizing activities at the conclusion of the course. Such themes as growth of national unity, the widening of the suffrage, the changed position of women, the development of an American culture, the conflict between national and sectional interest, will become more meaningful if the incidents are shown as steps in a broad and continuing movement rather than being considered as isolated events in our national history.

Fourth, we can emphasize the lives and contributions of great men and women in our country's history in order to bring out the traits of good citizenship and important contributions to the American heritage. In younger students the interest in people is especially keen; but for all students, to quote from Henry Johnson's *Teaching of History*, history "without emphasis on the personal element is . . . an empty stage. How-

ever magnificently set, it is lifeless without the players."⁹

Much depends on the selection and treatment of such biographical material. No particular list of individuals is sacrosanct; lessons of public service and civic virtue can be drawn from the lives of many men and women. Recently I came across a report that a group of students, when asked to list outstanding Americans, eliminated certain traditional figures and substituted personalities in current American life. No doubt many of the latter exhibit just as worth-while civic traits, but students do need to become acquainted with the great figures in American history. We cannot afford to lose the many-sidedness of Franklin, the wisdom of Washington, the free-thinking of Jefferson, the rough-and-ready democracy of Jackson, the humanity of Lincoln, or the constructive energy of a Ford or Burbank.

In treating historical figures we must select materials which are interesting, which stress the human qualities, and which are pertinent to our purpose. We must avoid the twin extremes of idolizing and debunking. It is not an easy task and often calls for research on the part of the teachers, but it is worth-while.

Teaching citizenship through United States history can be enriched by the use of current material. However much boys and girls may be inclined to feel that history deals with a dead past, they do respond to consideration on the events of the day. The newspapers and other mass media of communication present a wealth of pertinent material. Much of it contains allusions to events in the past, much of it not fully comprehensive without a clear idea of the historical background, much cannot be properly evaluated without the frame of reference of basic American principles. The judicious use of current events materials offers a motivating device for discussion of some aspect of history, the chance to de-

⁹Johnson, H., *Teaching of History*, Macmillan, New York, p. 144.

velop interesting analogies between present and past, and clearer appreciation of civic themes. History illuminates the present; the present makes the past more meaningful in terms of every-day living.

Both the historical and current materials taken up in a United States history course offer fine opportunities for developing clear thinking. Whether a topic deals with a burning issue of the day or with a development in colonial history, it has possibilities for stimulating this important citizenship skill. Clear thinking can be taught through various techniques—the posing of a problem in classroom discussion, panel discussions, individual and group researches and reports. The orderly organization of material; the weighing of evidence; the evaluation of conflicting accounts; the formulation of opinions and solutions in keeping with the evidence; and an understanding of propaganda techniques, are all important. Care should be taken to vary the types of exercises so that the student realizes that some problems are limited while others are broad; that some are reasonably capable of solution while others are exceedingly complex, about which society has as yet reached no definite conclusion. While any kind of problem lends itself more to the development of clear thinking, for the present purpose, activities should be formulated which stress citizenship materials and the solution of which have civic implications.

In a recent report to the National Association of Secondary school Principals, Dr. Vincent, Executive Officer of the Citizenship Education Project, said—"Citizenship is an active thing. Active things you learn through action.... In other words, if you want to do a good job of citizenship education, don't expect to do it with books alone."¹⁰

It would not be sensible to omit

¹⁰Vincent, W. S., The Citizenship Education Project, *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, March 1951, p. 110.

from this discussion the important method of teaching citizenship through action; yet it would be unrealistic to feel that as much could be done along these lines in United States history as in a separate course on citizenship. After all, it is in the field of acquaintance with our American principles and heritage that the study of United States history can make its greatest contribution. Yet there are two or three directions at least in which some contribution can be made along the lines of citizenship activity. One, particularly suitable at the elementary level, is to have students act through certain situations in American history. By taking part in the re-enacting of the Constitutional Convention, a Congressional committee hearing, or a meeting of the Security Council of the United Nations, they will obtain much more vivid reactions than merely by reading or discussing such events. A second is to observe, survey, and evaluate, the operation of government in the outside community. The reference to the establishment of local forms of government leads naturally to a survey of the type of government prevalent in the pupil's own section of the country. Discussion of state constitutions can lead to a visit to their own capital or to meetings with state officials. The holding of a local, state, or national election can be tied in both with knowledge of how election procedures developed in the past and observation of party and election machinery in their particular locality. The study of the initiative, referendum, primary, recall, etc., can lead to a survey of the extent to which these procedures are in operation locally and to an evaluation of their success.

Last, but not least, in classroom procedure there can be constant stress on developing the personal characteristics of good citizens. Loyalty to the American tradition; cooperation with the group; respect for those who differ from us in race, color, or creed; respect for, and obedience to, the law; the bringing about of desired reforms through the democratic process—all

these are qualities which should be practiced daily for they are the raw material out of which good citizens are made. In an article in a recent *Saturday Evening Post*, entitled "I Send Your Son Into Battle," Lt. Col. Blair makes the point that it is possible to predict the reaction of inexperienced soldiers in terms of the qualities they have developed in the home, school, and community. In the same way, we can feel reasonably sure that the development of the qualities I have just listed will lead to better citizenship. While training in the development of these qualities should have a place in all classes it is particularly important in United States history. I can think of no better way to discourage good citizenship than to teach the American heritage in an atmosphere which is the antithesis of the democratic process. Citizenship training, then, is a major concern for educators today. United States history is an important avenue in achieving citizenship training. Various methods can be utilized to achieve the values or outcomes which can be realized from such a course, but the initiative, skill and resourcefulness of the individual teacher are all-important. Does the task appear too ambitious and difficult? the answer is to be found in the response of teachers to these questions—Is it worth it? Do we really believe in our way of life? Are we honestly dedicated to the training of youth in a tradition of freedom? There is not one of us who does not thrill to the challenge in the following words of Judge Learned Hand, and reprinted recently in the *Reader's Digest*—“What then is the spirit of liberty? I can't define it; I can only tell you my own faith. The spirit of liberty is the spirit which is not too sure that it is right; the spirit of liberty is the spirit which seeks to understand the minds of other men and women; the spirit of liberty is the spirit which weighs their interests alongside its own bias; the spirit of liberty is the spirit of Him who, near 2000 years ago, taught mankind that lesson it has never learned, but has never

quite forgotten: that there may be a kingdom where the least shall be heard and considered side by side with the greatest.”¹¹

Shannon - - -

(Continued from page 38)

teaching for a small college in the community, and in that capacity used Miss Walls as his best demonstration teacher. In addition to coaching her own regularly assigned student teachers, she was called upon frequently to demonstrate certain techniques for other supervising teachers' students. Nobody since Socrates was so perfect a master of the technique of questioning as Miss Walls. Teaching, to her, was leading out, not filling up. The school board, as well



as the superintendent, looked upon Miss Walls as the best teacher in town, and she was the only member of the staff in the palmy '20's to remain until the end of World War II.

Taking advantage of the Indiana teacher-retirement law, Miss Walls turned herself out to green pastures in 1945. But she is still active and contributing her talent to public welfare as much as ever. Sitting, moaning about not knowing how to spend her leisure time, or carrying petitions to get the retirement law amended for her personal benefit, are belittling activities which do not mark masters like Miss Walls.

¹¹Reader's Digest, July 1951, p. 109.

While she was still active in the classroom, she was busy in constructive avocational pursuits. She was the town's foremost contralto, one of the community's church choirs exploiting most of her vocal talent. She was a Girl Scout captain. She was a committee chairman for women's or professional groups. She was an officer in the Order of the Eastern Star, advancing to the chair of Worthy Matron. She was Vice Chairman of the Republican Party of Hendricks County, the only position in which she was associated with "vice."

Now that she is free to give her full time to second-mile activities, she maintains her old roles in many former functions and has added the recording secretaryship in her church, the presidency of the Women's Society of Social Service in her church, and membership on her church's Official Board.

All the while, she earned the admiration of her peers through her clever wit. Her dark brown eyes always sparkled with lovable devilment.

Could such a woman have abetted or brooded or conditioned an Al Brady or John Dillinger? Nonsense! There is an altogether too prevalent tendency on the part of laymen and headline writers, either innocently or maliciously, to insinuate as much. "High-School Boys Rob Drug Store" is too characteristic of newspaper headlines to be regarded as purely innocent. If the headline writer is trying to indicate the degree of maturity of the culprits, he could refer to them as adolescents. To accentuate is to insinuate. *High school* in such headlines reminds a critical observer of *Negro* in others. A felon's educational status or his race has no bearing whatsoever on his act which brought notoriety. It would be no more unfair or farfetched to say *Methodist, Boy Scout, DeMolay, or Y.M.C.A.*

A sobbing W.C.T.U. member bemoaned, "Why do the schools have the boys doing these things?" as if the high school had a course in imbibing, and teachers gave lecture demonstrations on the art of pocket-

flask manipulation. A patron once met a high-school principal on the street with a bold salutation. "Some high-school boys have rented a hall downtown and are having lewd parties every Saturday night. Did you know it? What are you going to do about it?"

"Yes I knew it, and I'm not going to do anything about it. One of the leaders in the gang is your son. What are you going to do about it?"

Al Brady and John Dillinger were bad characters. They were not born into evil ways; they learned them. The learning may have been incidental or it may have been purposeful. In either case, they learned their evil ways from teachers, but not from schoolteachers. Their teachers in wrongdoing were, wittingly or unwittingly, their parents, older playmates, dissolute degenerates, sordid seducers, obscure townspeople, so-called funny books, radio, newspapers, and moving pictures.

Leorah G. Walls is a symbol of her profession. Nobody ever thought seriously that she contributed, either directly or indirectly to the downfall of anybody. It was only in jest that her fellows referred to her as the teacher of Al Brady and John Dillinger. Would that it were only in jest that anybody ever cast disparagement, either directly or through insinuation, toward schoolteachers or school-teaching. And not even then; some things are not suitable subject matter for jesting. Humor on some themes is boorish. Miss Walls is big enough to listen and laugh, but she is not typical.

A symbol of her profession, but not a typical representative: such is the teacher of Al Brady and John Dillinger. Social and psychological factors—plus the two boys' weakness—made disparate men out of the boys from Mooresville and Danville. Leorah G. Walls had nothing to do with it. She is fairest among thousands, altogether lovely.

Roll - - -

(Continued from page 39)
these lines from Kipling's poem "The

Explorer" which might well be a motto for all real students:

"Something hidden, go and find it—
Go and look behind the ranges
Something lost behind the ranges
Lost and waiting for you, Go!"

In the time of war and of the threat of war, there is sometimes a tendency to let down standards. The opposite should be true. If the colleges and universities do not rise above mediocrity, who will? They are in a better position to provide an enlightened citizenry and wise leadership for the future than any other agency. These things are desperately needed. If we do not possess them, it makes little difference who wins the cold war or the hot war, we lose.

I refuse to believe that there is any enduring enmity between democracy and real distinction. It may well be that genuine culture, as Mr. T. S. Eliot thinks, will always be confined to a minority, but there is no reason why it should not be an increasing minority.

Was it not Matthew Arnold who once wrote, "Culture has one great passion. It is not satisfied till we all come to a perfect man . . . It seeks to do away with classes; to make the best that has been thought and known in the world, current everywhere." He was advocating a leveling up.

The chief significance of Honor Day as I see it, is that we gather here one day in the year to honor those who have not been content with a monotonous, dead level mediocrity. Your presence here reveals that you believe in the quality of distinction.

Schick - - -

(Continued from page 40)

Communications classes. Approximately twenty-five students were in each class, though there were some irregularities; the late afternoon class never had a full complement because of student program difficulties. Again the enrollment, as in the year before, held up quite well. By the close of the Winter Quarter only eight stu-

dents had dropped from the course, most of them having dropped out of college altogether. There were some transfers of students from class to class from quarter to quarter; these were permitted only when registration conflicts with other classes made such transfers necessary. A change in class in no way disrupted the student's work, for all instructors followed the same daily program.

During the year 1951-52 more class sections will be devoted to the Communications Course; the exact number has not yet been determined. In the coming year it is felt that there will be no further need for the Communications Committee to function as a group; however, one committee member will be assigned to liaison functions for this final year of transition. In 1952-53 it is the plan of the Administration that almost all of the entering Freshmen will take the Basic Communications work; but this is a rather long-range forecast and does not fall properly within the scope of this report.

Again the Committee wishes to thank all who have assisted in the work of the year. Whatever merit the Communications program may have, it is largely the result of the suggestions and assistance given so generously by many of our colleagues.

Abstract of Thesis

Nipple, Charles Alfred. *Devising and Initiating a Program with Adolescent Mentally Retarded*. August, 1951. (No. 725).

The problem of this thesis was to develop a curriculum suitable for the adolescent mentally retarded. A review of recently published research was made. The mechanics of choosing the pupils and the trial of the program were described. The program was evaluated and revisions were suggested.

The program proved to be an experiment using experience units of work as the basis for the curriculum. The units were chosen to help the pupil become more socially adjusted.

to help him live on his social level, to make the pupil a good citizen, and to help him be capable enough to acquire a job and retain that job. Much time was spent on occupational education, health, and safety. Audio-visual aids were used whenever possible. A positive type of discipline with the pupils in charge was practiced. The teacher only interfered when an extreme discipline problem arose.

The Stanford Binet Test, Form L, and the Vineland Social Maturity Scale were given at the beginning and repeated when the class had been in session seven months. The Durrell Reading Capacity Test and a Stanford Achievement Test were also administered at the beginning of the program. Administration, parent, and teacher observation were used in addition to the above as a basis for evaluation.

Only one of the fourteen pupils seemed to make little or no progress. Marked progress was made with many. Some were disciplinary problems, but much of that difficulty was overcome during the course of the school year. Two pupils were transferred to the seventh grade for trial for the next year. One pupil was transferred to the eighth grade for trial. The pupils who were sixteen or would be before the next school year were transferred to vocational courses in the high school if they did not wish to quit school. For the majority this program terminated their education. Correlations were made comparing the Binet scores, the Vineland scores, and the first and second Binet scores to the corresponding scores. The lowest correlation was + .908, and the highest correlation was + .977.

To all people concerned the class was a success. Some revisions were made, but basically the curriculum devised seemed to be a sound one.

Book Reviews

Psychology and Teaching of Reading, 2nd edition, by Edward W.

Dolch, Champaign, Illinois: The Garrand Press, 1951, pp. 515.

It is twenty years since the appearance of the first edition of *Psychology and Teaching of Reading* by Dr. E. W. Dolch, Professor of Education, University of Illinois. Since that time thousands of researches and many books have been published on reading, but says Dr. Dolch, in his preface to the second edition of his book, "little has been written on what the reader himself does when he reads." Thus, his purpose in making the revision is to explore the psychology of reading; to explain what the reading process is, what goes on in the mind of the reader as he reads, and "what the school can do about it."

His fundamental point of view is that "reading is a developmental process." He sees the child as a living, growing organism, and believes that the same principles that operate in any other phase of child growth and development operate in his learning to read. Accordingly, he emphasizes the following principles of growth and applies them to the development of reading skills:

1. Growth is a continuous process.
2. Growth is a "building of experience within one's self."
3. Each child is unique. In reading, as in any other phase of development, individual needs must be considered.
4. The child must have a readiness for learning to read, as for other skills.
5. There are sequences in learning to walk, to talk and in other aspects of growth; similarly there are stages in learning to read. These stages merge into each other, but "do have definite beginnings and endings."

Following a thorough-going discussion of reading readiness, Dr. Dolch considers in nine chapters, "Stages in Reading Development," namely:

1. Building a Sight Vocabulary.
2. Independent Work Attack.
3. Developing a Meaning Vocabulary.
4. Fluency at Some Useful Level.
5. Study, or Getting More From Reading.

Very timely and practical, is Dr. Dolch's discussion of independent word attack. In twenty pages he sets forth his program of thirteen steps in learning "soundings," the moot subject which most teachers refer to as "phonics." The author points out that "any plan for the teaching of sounding must be adapted by the teacher to her conditions and to her class," and proceeds to give three strong recommendations for his plan, as follows:

1. "It has succeeded with thousands of different teachers and countless children of many kinds of abilities and backgrounds.
2. It reduces the complicated subject to thirteen clearly defined steps.
3. It was developed from actual teaching of sounding and from observation of just how children learned."

Dr. Dolch's chapters on different phases of extended reading experience—fluency, building a vocabulary, reading and study, and "a life time reading habit"—conclude a book that the teacher of reading, at any level might well keep in a handy place on his desk for constant referral, for it is comprehensive in scope, is psychologically sound, is based on the experience of many teachers, and is simply and concisely written.

—Fay Griffith
Associate Professor of Education
Indiana State Teachers College

Mental Hygiene in Teaching by Fritz Redl and William W. Wattenberg, Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1951. xiii + 454 pp.

Mental Hygiene in Teaching is a book intended to aid any teacher to live a better-adjusted life himself and to help his students live more happily and wholesomely. It has four major parts: (1) an introduction; (2) some fundamentals in regard to behavior mechanisms, growth, influences that shape lives, personality distortions, and adjustment; (3) classroom applications; and (4) special problems of children and teachers. At the end there is a helpful appendix giving additional sources of information and

definitions of special terms. An index completes the book.

Anyone interested in teaching will find this book absorbing, if only for the countless illustrations from grade and high school life. Anyone interested in the kind of teaching which really does promote good mental health will find this book extremely helpful, for it is sound in its approach and down-to-earth in its principles and applications.

The book is unreservedly recommended to parents and teachers. It will hold their attention because of its clear simplicity of style and because of its many interesting accounts of actual school situations. It will provide real enlightenment as to what "mental hygiene" is and how it may be attained. It will inspire them to be better parent and/or teachers. What is more, the book should be on the required list of every person preparing to be a teacher—it is that good.

—Marguerite Malm, Prof. of Educ.
Indiana State Teachers College

Berrien, F. K., *Comments and Cases on Human Relations*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951. xi + 500 pp.

Two of the major sections of the book are represented in the title, "Comments" and "Cases." A third section is the "Instructor's Appendix."

Part One, "Comments," presents a thesis; Part Two and the Appendix offer materials and ways and means of developing and implementing it in the thinking and living of the reader. Written primarily as a textbook for the utilizing of the "case method" in a course in human relations, the book is also well-suited to independent study by those in positions of leadership who would increase their effectiveness in human relations and by those aspiring to leadership positions. It will also be valuable reading for classes in mental hygiene.

In Part One human relations problems are discussed around the theme of self-actualization—"the drive (or drives) to attain as much as the individual is capable of attaining"—in and through social harmony. Self-actualization not only is dependent on "the attainment of biological needs and sustenance," but also it "includes the development of close relationships which anchor the individual securely in some stable, continuing group." As the author points out, this is essentially congruent with the objectives of the mental hygienists."

The major emphases are on the role of and the development of the following areas they relate to human relations: the communication skills, observation and syncretistic problem

solving, understanding the motives of people and their origins, skills in the interpretation of attitudes, prejudice, and rumor, and modifying and re-educating attitudes. And as the author says, "Even if the individual never finds himself in a position of leadership, the concepts developed . . . can be of some usefulness in the interpersonal relationships which we seek and which are thrust upon us."

Berrien has done a good job in Part One of bringing together the results of pertinent research and philosophical thinking in the field of human relations into clear statements of concepts. He has also skillfully interwoven interesting and stimulating illustrations taken from wide areas of human experience.

As a basis for discussion under the case method technique, twenty-eight true cases involving problems in interpersonal relations are presented in Part Two. They include those which emphasize the individual and those which involve relations between groups.

The "Instructor's Appendix" not only offers suggestions as to the techniques of the case method, but also presents criteria of effective discussions and grading criteria. Discussed, also, are some of the problems more particularly peculiar to this method.

—Jacob E. Cobb, Prof. of Educ.
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